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ABSTRACT

This publication includes the proceedings of the December 1974 long-range academic planning workshop for the 1974-75 Cooperative Academic Planning (CAP) consortium, the first in a series on curriculum change for this new consortium. This workshop represents a new thrust for the CAP program in terms of establishing coordinating and comprehensive plans for addressing long-range academic planning needs of the participating colleges and universities. Contained in this document are sections covering: long-range academic planning overview; consideration of needs assessment in effective long-range academic planning; establishing institutional goals and objectives; developing instructional objectives; development and implementation of programs; program evaluation; and the roster of workshop staff, speakers, consultants, and college and university representatives. (Author/PG)

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COOPERATIVE ACADEMIC PLANNING

PROGRAM

WORKSHOP ON

# LONG-RANGE ACADEMIC PLANNING

Prepared By

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U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
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Atlanta, Georgia
December 5-7, 1974

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The Institute for Services to Education (ISE) was incorporated as a non-profit organization in 1965 and subsequently received a basic grant from the Carnegie Corporation of New York. The organization is founded on the principle that education today requires a fresh examination of what is worth teaching and how to teach it. ISE is a catalyst for change. Under grants from government agencies and private foundations, ISE undertakes a variety of educational tasks — working cooperatively with other educational institutions. It does not just produce educational materials or techniques that are innovative; it develops, in cooperation with teachers and administrators, procedures for effective installation of successful materials and techniques in the colleges.

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# LONG-RANGE ACADEMIC PLANNING

## A REPORT ON A COOPERATIVE ACADEMIC PLANNING CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT WORKSHOP

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ATLANTA, GEORGIA
DECEMBER 5 – 7, 1974

COOPERATIVE ACADEMIC PLANNING
INSTITUTE FOR SERVICES TO EDUCATION, INC.

2001 "S" Street, N. W. Washington, D. C. 20009

March, 1975

## PREFACE

The Cooperative Academic Planning (CAP) program has been centered on developing catalytic structures for persuading institutional planning teams to implement curriculum changes. This involvement has revealed that curricular programs must be developed by well designed schemata that demonstrate each institution's commitment to provide relevant educational experiences for its student clientele. This commitment often demands a serious reassessment of a college's mission, goals, and objectives.

This workshop represents a new thrust for the CAP program in terms of establishing coordinated and comprehensive plans for addressing long-range academic planning needs of the participating colleges and universities. With the new emphasis on meeting the current and emerging needs of students, these institutions find themselves actively searching for ways to implement effective systematic academic planning procedures. Since each institution has its own unique concerns, each one must set up a systematic approach that can best synchronize planning components.

The previous publications of the CAP workshop proceedings include:

Curriculum Change in Black Colleges I – April 19-21, 1972, Atlanta Workshop – (1971-'72 Consortium)

Focus on Curriculum Change in Black Colleges II – June 13-23, 1972, Dallas Summer Workshop (1971 – '72 Consortium)

Curriculum Change in Black Colleges III – Part 1 – November 1-3, 1972, Atlanta Workshop; Part II – April 4-6, 1973, Atlanta Workshop – (1971 – '72 Consortium)

Curriculum Change in Black Colleges IV – Part 1 – December 4-6, 1972, Atlanta Workshop; Part II – June 4-13, 1973, Dallas Summer Workshop – (1972 – '73 Consortium)

Curriculum Change in Black Colleges V – November 15-17, 1973, Atlanta Workshop (1972 –'73 Consortium)

Curriculum Change in Black Colleges VI – December 3-5, 1973, Atlanta Workshop (1973 – '74 Consortium)

Curriculum Change in Black Colleges VII – April 4-6, 1974, Atlanta Workshop (1972 – '73 Consortium)

Curriculum Change in Black Colleges VIII – June 5-8, 1974, Daytona Beach Workshop (1973 – '74 Consortium)

This publication includes the proceedings of the December, 1974 long-range academic planning workshop for the 1974 – '75 CAP consortium. This workshop is the first workshop in a series on curriculum change for this new consortium.

We wish to extend our sincere appreciation to the various speakers and consultants for making this a valuable educational experience for the participants. We are particularly grateful to each author for providing relevant materials which stimulated new ideas for intensive group interaction.

Roosevelt Calbert
Willie J. Epps
Lois Powell

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# PART I

# LONG-RANGE ACADEMIC PLANNING OVERVIEW

## INSTITUTIONAL PLANNING

Institutions that are well into the development of master plans become more and more aware that each one's system of administrative, academic, fiscal and student services components must be holistically synthesized. This is generally accomplished through a system which involves various phases of institutional planning. One phase of long-range planning involves the process of specifying the institutional mission, goals and objectives in measurable terms and the subsequent establishment of mandated tasks and timelines for achieving the goals. Tasks included in this kind of long-range planning usually center on developing management, fiscal, resource, communication, and evaluation capabilities.

Without a doubt, however, an institutional statement of mission and goals should precede all planning efforts whether the plans are short, medium or long-range in scope. An effective mission statement should have some bearing on each subsequent planning decision. The "mission" statement relates to the broad, long-range philosophy of the institution, while "goal" implies a more immediate time target.

The mission statement usually provides insight and guidance on such issues as:

1. What are the fundamental precepts which dictate the institutional governance?

2. What are the institutional priorities?

3. How is the institutional mission incorporated into the academic programs and other related aspects of the college campus such as research and public service?

4. Should degree programs be designed to allow students to reach career goals via a wide range of options?

Comprehensive college and university planning encompasses the various institutional components such as academic, management, financial and physical. Each element in every

component shares a common bond which may be complex in nature. In this sense, comprehensive planning becomes a coordination device which utilizes a series of approaches and techniques which mold an operative system from a mass of separate componential activities.

Perhaps one of the most important ongoing planning phases is the development and implementation of a long-range academic planning design. No one can argue that the academic programs are really why the colleges or universities exist. Consequently, the Cooperative Academic Planning Program, in concert with a wide range of consultive services, provides technical assistance on the synthesizing of academic data that relate to institutional concerns with: enrollment trends; course cost analysis; the assessment and development of current curricular offerings and programs in terms of their relevancy to the needs of the students and the community being served by the college or university; policy research on the enrichment of instructional activities and methodologies; and the development of a comprehensive performance evaluation system.

*Long-Range Academic Planning*

Of all the identified responsibilities of a college or university, long-range planning is perhaps the most important. On the basis of this importance, institutions are devoting a great deal of talent, time and effort to the processes of establishing comprehensive institutional planning. These processes involve the implementation of some type of systematic planning model. A systematic approach to planning must not only be highly organized, it must also effectively address the realistic, well-defined, and measurable institutional mission, goals and objectives.

No matter what kind of model an institution may use, there are certain considerations that are essential to the planning process. These considerations include:

- The cognizance that a college or university is composed of a related system of components. These components include a governing board, senior administrators, institutional research office, and/or an office of institutional development, management information systems, faculty and staff members,

students, physical plant, budgetary control, alumni and community organizations. Each component should reflect total institutional commitment and involvement. Much of this commitment could be exhibited by each component's task forces or subcommittees.

- The realization that institutional planning must be well organized and continuous. Although task forces will deal with short-range, medium-range, and long-range planning, one must be careful in trying to clearly delineate where one kind of plan ends and another begins. There is a great deal of overlap between each kind of planning. Reliable and updated institutional data must therefore be accessible to the various task-oriented groups.

- The specification that the decision-making process is functional and can generate ongoing task attainments. Committee duties and responsibilities should be carefully outlined as well as the subsequent guidelines for accountability.

- The awareness that the utilization of management information systems is an involved procedure that encompasses more than just the utilization of computers. Management information systems can enhance an institution's capability to communicate, analyze, and process data that can maximize the effectiveness of a systems approach to planning. Under the proper conditions, computers can speed up the flow and analysis of large amounts of institutional data at a reasonable cost factor. The advent of informational systems denotes a shifting of the basis for programmatic decisions from rationales based upon personal choices to rationales based upon actual needs as determined by data analysis. This system also lays the cornerstone for doing the right things at the right time for meeting the needs of the institution, the students, the community and the nation at large.

- The comprehension that the academic program should be the principal focus of a planning process. Academic planning, by the very fact that this is what determines an institution's continued existence, is at the very core of all planning activity. The establishment of new academic models requires a substantial coordinated pool of all institutional resources.

This workshop centered on the basic long-range planning activities according to a model as illustrated in figure 1. The basic strucrure of this model was created by Juan A. Casasco.[1]

One can readily see that there are identifiable phases or steps inherent in all of the planning deliberations. Very simply stated, some phases of the planning process are to:

- Identify and specify goal priorities
- Look at current programs in relation to goal priorities
- Conduct needs assessments
- Develop program and instructional objectives related to identified needs
- Develop program alternatives and select those most likely to achieve objectives
- Implement selected program alternatives
- Monitor programs and evaluate formative and summative effectiveness.

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[1]Casasco, Juan A. Planning Techniques for University Management. American Council on Education. ERIC Clearinghouse on Higher Education. Washington, D. C. pp. 3-7, 1970.

## A CONCEPTUALIZED LONG-RANGE CURRICULUM PLANNING SCHEMA

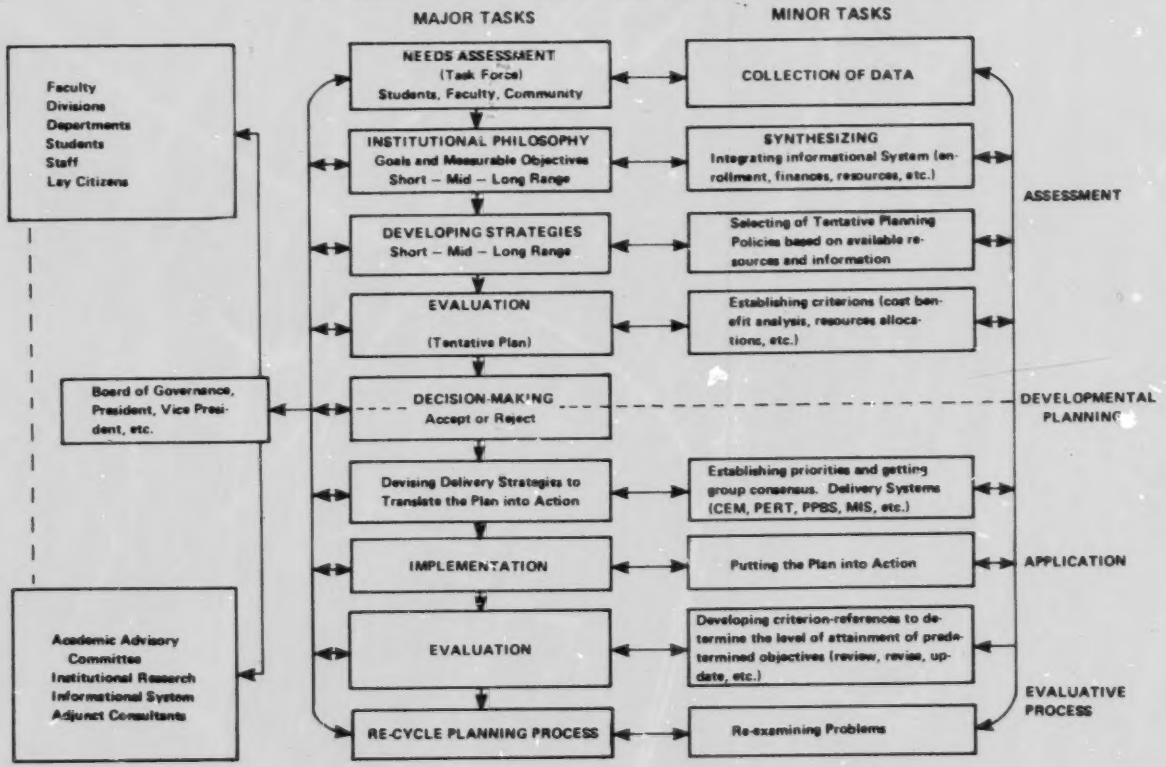


Figure 1

*Need for Coordination*

In an academic plan, the vice president for academic affairs or the academic dean, is directly responsible for the overall coordination of the academic plan. He should delegate responsibility and authority, but ultimately, he must make decisions and recommendations to the institutional planning committee. Listed below is only a partial list of his responsibilities. He should:

- Maintain a comfortable environment
- Secure frank, full expression of ideas
- Summarize faithfully agreements or decisions reached and utilize group processes from time to time
- Help record keepers in the maintenance of adequate notes as to the flow and results of discussion
- See that alternative courses of action and positions on issues are identified
- Determine the consensus when appropriate
- Recognize fully the contributions of group members.

*Establishment of A Planning Team*

The academic planning team role is extremely important to the degree of success of the institutional planning venture. The planning team should be charged with the responsibility of coordinating and directing the entire academic planning effort and lead others through the phases of the process. The composition of the team should include both professional staff and students since all of these groups will be involved in one or more steps of the planning process. The size of the group should be workable. There should be minimum membership, but at the same time, the group should be large enough to get maximum input.

*Duties and Responsibilities of a Planning Team*

One of the team's first responsibilities is to develop a plan for planning which can serve as both guidelines for the college/university planning effort and serve as a mechanism against which to evaluate the effectiveness of planning activities. Suggested topics to be included in the plan for planning are:

- Time frame
- Type of planning
- Major milestones of the planning effort
- Assignment of responsibilities
- Financial and human resources
- Determination of outcomes/outputs
- Establishment of evaluation procedures

Once a planning team has been established, the other planning procedures should include the following:

*Establishing Goal Priorities*

An ad hoc committee could be appointed to work on this phase of the academic long-range plan. The tasks of the ad hoc committee are to make some decisions concerning the procedures to be used to establish goals and who should be involved. Some possible alternatives to achieve this task include the following:

1. The Delphi-Technique
2. Public hearings

3. Development of some goals to be distributed to students, colleagues, staff, etc., for their reactions and suggestions.

4. Surveys—(The committee might ask the institution's clientele to identify the major educational concerns and issues of the college/university as they see them. The results are then generated into goals.)

5. Ranking of existing goal statements in their order of importance by students, faculty, and staff.

There are many other techniques that can be used to get the job done. Whatever is suitable and desirable for your planning team, do it!!

*Needs Assessment*

The next step in an academic plan is that of finding out where you are now in relation to the goals. This procedure is known as needs assessment; an attempt to find the discrepancies between where you want to be and where you are now. An ad hoc committee's responsibilities in this phase of the plan include:

- Determining the procedures to be used for collecting analyzing and validating pertinent data and generating such data into educational needs

- Determining and developing objective criteria and measurements

- Collecting and analyzing data such as:

  - Assessment of target population

  - Assessment of teachers

- Assessment of graduates
- Assessment of the community
- Assessment of curriculum

This ad hoc committee should be assisted by a staff member from the office of institutional research.

*Development of Program and Instructional Objectives*

This is one of the most important steps in the academic plan because it is this step which gives evidence that the college's or university's goals are being achieved. There are a variety of ways of organizing the staff to translate priority goals and assessed needs into program and instructional objectives. Perhaps, during this phase of planning, several committees should be appointed:

- Each school/divisional committee
- Each departmental committee
- Separate committees by disciplines
- Interdisciplinary school/divisional committee
- Interdisciplinary departmental committee

*Development of Program Alternatives*

In this step of the plan, logically, the committees which were organized to develop program and instructional objectives should also develop and suggest program modifications designed to meet the objectives. A variety of modifications is possible and can take a number of forms, a few of these are:

Independent studies

Mini-courses

Course deletions or additions

Seminars

New teaching techniques and approaches

New content within the existing courses

Interdisciplinary studies

Competency-Based Education

Team teaching

*Implementation of Programs*

Perhaps this is the most crucial task in the entire planning process. To implement something new means to change. Many times, students, faculty, and administrators resist change. There are many reasons why people resist change. Some of these reasons follow:

1. Lack of data to support the change
2. Lack of input by all components that will be affected by the change
3. Some persons feel threatened by change per se
4. Lack of new skills demanded by the change.

However, in many ways, people support and welcome change when:

- There is evidence to show the need for change
- They do not feel threatened
- They have had some input in the planning process
- Change is approached on a pilot basis.

Some suggestive strategies that the planning team might work on include the following:

- Identify the factors which will enhance program change
- Identify the factors that will hinder program change
- Work out strategies which will alleviate those factors which hinder program change
- Establish a communication network which will inform the institution's clientele and other interested parties about the proposed program change.

*Evaluation*

The next important step in the long-range academic planning process is evaluation. In many academic plans, this step is deferred until the end of the planning cycle. Evaluation is a continuous process, and should not become a once-a-year ordeal; there must be both formative and summative evaluation.

Formative evaluation is a continual assessment of the efficacy of the long-range academic plan during its development and implementation in terms of meeting the prestated goals and objectives. It provides the planning team with the flexibility, justification and direction for revision of the entire plan or sections of the plan while it is still in the

embryonic stage. The results that are derived from formative evaluation should provide an improved product in a shorter time period.

Another form of evaluation is commonly referred to as summative evaluation. Summative evaluation is the overall assessment of the final product and process effectiveness with regard to the degree of attainment of the plan's prespecified goals and objectives.

*Recycling*

Planning is not an activity that is to be done just for discrete periods of one year, two years or five years. Rather, it is a continuous and ongoing process. The planning team should proceed through the initial phases of the planning process in a specified time frame and repeat the process. Such a continuous planning effort would strengthen an institution's assurance that it is meeting the needs of its clientele within the constantly changing social, economic, and political conditions.

# PART II

## NEEDS ASSESSMENT

## THE CONSIDERATION OF NEEDS ASSESSMENT IN EFFECTIVE LONG-RANGE ACADEMIC PLANNING

**Joseph Williams**

*Introduction*

Specific objectives for this workshop are relative to broadening the participants' abilities to use appropriate procedures in their program planning. A primary objective of this presentation is to focus upon the relationale for a needs assessment; and to present the relevant issues inherent in the process that you may contemplate, reflect, examine, and weigh carefully these things as you direct your energies toward enlarging your skills in program planning.

Needs assessment is the process of data collection about the clients (students), the staff (faculty and administrative), and community (parents, alumni, citizens, and other non-institutional personnel). The purpose of this process is to develop or refine institutional objectives and goals leading to decision-making and program planning. From this vantage point, personnel engaged in long-range institutional planning will have available the following:

1. A systematic approach to specifying goals and objectives.

2. A method for identifying and clarifying problem areas.

3. Appropriate data as a basis for complex decision-making.

The needs assessment provides one source of data for identifying institutional goals. Such data indicates the status of conditions at the institution and in the community for the determination of future goals.

A number of related terms show a similarity to needs assessment. Institutional self-study or self-evaluation, goals study, and accreditation self-study are examples. The use of needs assessment is required for the identification or statement of the problem sections in proposals for grants from the U.S. Office of Education. Particular to this section is the accompanying data with analysis and interpretation which relate to

the identified issues. Such is the scope of the needs assessment, viz., a status description which includes appropriate data that link issues to a format of program planning and decision-making.

The implicit point of view in this CAP workshop-conference is that the needs assessment is vital to the development of a statement of institutional mission, or a revision of such. The data, properly collected-analyzed-interpreted, accrued from the needs assessment can be related to the present mission of your institution to discover discrepancies or ambiguities. It can be useful in clarifying the present statement of mission. In this latter case, it might be feasible to do this in order to satisfy a mandate given from an external source, e.g., state department of education or other governmental agency, an accreditation agency, or your Board of Trustees. Moreover, in order to proceed toward the decision-making for the development of instructional goals and objectives, and the implementation of new programs, it is necessary to have the data which needs assessment provides. In the context of Long-Range Academic Planning, the process of needs assessment is the foundation of those other decisions and activities which form the basis of the program development effort.

*The Rationale of Needs Assessment Applied to Black Institutions of Higher Education*

Black colleges have been the major (and, at points, the singular) source of higher education opportunities for black Americans during the last century. These institutions have preserved the culture of black people, while maintaining a high level of contributions to main-stream America. They have taught the members of the black community that they are somebody, which is contrary to the larger focus of the social-political-economic environment. These institutions have provided role models for lifting their levels of aspiration and achievement. In addition, they have provided leaders who have communicated to the larger society in behalf of the black community and the stated ideals of the American system. To lose these institutions would be to deny the need for such contributions and eradicate forever those viable assets which are not provided elsewhere in the American system of education.

Moreover, there is the threat that not only will the production and development of black leaders cease and desist, with the loss of the black colleges; but also, that vital link in communication between the two systems will be lost, forever! If the present black colleges are eradicated, it may be that more vocal and less competent institutions will arise as replacements. At any rate, some form or type of sub-system will prevail as a reservoir for the black experience and a conduit for messages to the larger society.

Black colleges have received encouragement from a number of journalists and scholars; yet Christopher Jencks and David Riesman in an article, "The American Negro College," Harvard Educational Review, 37(1967), and in the Academic Revolution, (New York, 1968), have projected them in a less than favorable image.

Nabrit in "Reflections on the Future of Black Colleges," Daedalus, Summer 1971, Vol. 100, No. 3, states that black colleges are in a vise that is being tightened by several pressures;

1. The social change brought on by integration that drains them of some of their best students, both academically and economically.

2. The pressure of federal and state agencies to accelerate what appears to be one-way integration, i.e., integration of white institutions by Blacks.

3. The decrease in gifts and grants by liberals who honestly feel that in order to expedite integration any thing currently operated by Blacks should be abolished. (The liberal who perceives everything in terms of white norms and values may be the worst enemy of the black institutions.)

4. The turmoil created by black separatists, who are disillusioned and frustrated and who would give up all the integrationist gains of the sixties for a less competitive, separate arena, increasing the pressure constantly being exerted by the die-hard segregationists.

5. The strain on operating costs caused by efforts to keep top quality personnel who are finding new and better opportunities elsewhere.[1]

An exploration of the historical role of black institutions of higher education is developed by Mack H. Jones as he speaks of the responsibility of the Black College.[2] His perception is that black colleges have been developed with built-in goals and objectives which are contradictory. As the majority group in America has perpetuated its superior status, minority citizens have struggled for equality. Yet, both groups have attempted to use the black college as the instrument of their struggle. The major responsibility of black colleges, from an historical perspective has been to develop black leaders who would function in the black community for the purpose of self-survival, while working simultaneously for this equal status.

With these factors in mind, it is imperative that administrators, staff, and students link forces with the larger community to tell the positive story of black institutions and counteract the trends of the pressures to obliterate or limit the effectiveness of their systems. Critical to the capability to function is the needs assessment which gives information on the positives and negatives; the latter which will be the focus for the change process resulting from dynamic decision-making.

On the other hand, Elias Blake[3] makes the point that black colleges are of critical value to the future of black Americans; but, only in the context of their development within the context of supporting a truly pluralistic society. His feeling is that educational equity (enrollment in proportion to the numbers in the population and the

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[1] Nabrit, S. M. "Reflections on the Future of Black Colleges," Daedalus, Summer 1971, Vol. 100, No. 3, p. 661.

[2] Jones, Mack H. "The Responsibility of the Black College to the Black Community: Then and Now," Daedalus, Summer 1971, Vol. 100, No. 3, pp. 732-744.

[3] Blake, Elias Jr., "Future Leadership Roles for Predominately Black Colleges and Universities in American Higher Education," Daedalus, Summer 1971, Vol. 100, No. 3, pp. 745-771.

production of undergraduate, graduate, and professional degrees) will depend primarily upon the expansion of the sizes of black colleges in America. In fact, he states that black colleges are indispensable if black Americans are to achieve equity in higher education. Moreover, the development of educational programs, which is necessary for guaranteeing the future of black Americans, resides in the black academic community where there is a long-term commitment which is not "sidetracked" by the concerns in ecology, pollution control, etc. that are unrelated to Blacks and poor people. He suggests three major areas for black colleges to develop:

1. The creation of new areas of knowledge and an intellectual peerage among themselves that arises critical questions about American culture and civilization as currently developed and presented by American scholarship.

2. The attempt to look at science and technology from a fresh perspective; and that of applied science and its relationship to solutions to the physical and spiritual problems of racism and class bias.

3. The creation of the essential rituals, celebrations, and traditions that indicate respect for the preservation of the historical record and accomplishments of black people in America; as individuals and as groups contributing to the larger culture.

From the vantage point of these realities, the changing trends in enrollment, the scarcity of resources – fiscal, and competent, dedicated personnel – and the changing labor economy: as well as the foregoing demand a high-quality institutional assessment of needs as a prelude to decision-making. Although there has been an increase in the numbers of black youth matriculating at predominately white colleges and universities, black institutions of higher education bear the major responsibility of receiving these young black citizens and granting them an opportunity for an education. The shift of foundation grants and

federal funds toward the white colleges and universities, coupled with the thrust toward desegregation/integration (meaning black students entering white institutions, in the main, rather than vice versa) has made fiscal resources for the under financed black colleges a threat toward near extinction. New career opportunities and the demands for a thorough performance on the job has increased the demand for black colleges to expand course offerings and degree programs while graduating quality-prepared students, if they are to be competitive.

It appears that someone is planning for black colleges – commissions, foundations, levels of government – with the priorities shifting from support to these institutions. Our role should be the development of strategies for more than survival. The thrust of our efforts should move to the dimension of efficiency and proficiency in the accomplishment of our mission. Your task in this conference, as representatives of your institutions, is to grasp the significance of these issues which will be resolved only through a sufficient data base upon which you can rely for your decision-making. The Needs Assessment will bring forth the necessary information in order for you to accept the challenges which confront you; and, so that your long-range academic planning will be relevant to your students, the community and the nation.

*The Process and Personnel*

For operationalizing the Needs Assessment, designated members, to a committee or council, should receive support from the institutional research staff of the college or appropriate personnel with skills in surveys, data collection and analysis. The group should be representative of the administrative and academic staff, students, alumni, trustees, and parents (where possible). It may be that other citizens could be invited to participate. Fundamental questions which must be considered are:

1. What are this institution's objectives?

2. Are these objectives appropriate for our time and our constituency?

3. Are our institutional activities consistent with these objectives?

4. Are the curriculum programs and activities designed to achieve the objectives?

5. Have we sufficient resources available to guarantee the success of these programs? Will we have these resources continuously?

6. What is the evidence which leads us to believe the objectives are/are not being achieved?

In a primary sense, the needs assessment function of the committee will be to focus on the above questions – 2 through 6. This conference-workshop emphasis is upon these issues as related to curriculum development. The academic planner must have an assessment of student needs, staff needs, and the community (local, state, regional, or national) needs in order to have answers to the given questions. The use of a survey questionnaire as an instrument to collect this information from staff and students is an accepted procedure. Examples of this type of instrument are the Institutional Goals Inventory, (Princeton, Educational Testing Service, 1972.) and The Questionnaire – Academic Administrators and University Goals. (Edward Gross and Paul V. Grambsch, in University Goals and Academic Power; Washington, American Council on Education, 1968.) Further discussion will be given during the group sessions regarding the IGI, which is a part of the Institutional Research Program for Higher Education, Educational Testing Service. This instrument solicits responses from students, faculty and administrators regarding 90 statements of institutional goals. Their views can be given as to what exists presently, and that which they would like to exist.

Other relevant data can be collected from numerous sources – school records, federal records, state records, county and municipal records, census records, business – economic-labor trends, foundation and professional group studies, and the institutional

research records. You will find that a large amount of information is available for your collecting.

Once the data are collected, the critical task of analyzing and interpreting the voluminous amount of information falls to the needs assessment council or committee. Presumably, a few of the members will have skill in the appropriate use of this data. The task of editing the material is a significant one which calls for discrete skills in communication. The clarity and lucidity of the conclusions must be designed to communicate to various publics, as well as the students and staff.

It is imperative that the needs assessment council/committee have the major direction of this effort in expressing an approach to the identification of the need and to analyze and interpret the data in the context which will guide the decision-making process. Assistance from personnel other than within the institutional committee/council should be directed by this group in the technical and non-technical effort. Assuming the absence of technical skills among institutional personnel, the technical assistants should labor to provide a format for the process which captures the true emotional quality which reflects the substance of the institution.

*Conclusion*

There are three constituencies which have a concern for the educational process, viz:

1. The community
2. The students
3. The educators.

Society designates to the educational institutions the task of developing in students the capacities and commitments to the prevailing economic, political, and moral order. However, the student must reply upon equal opportunity and social mobility as those vehicles for political stability. Educators have the immense task of providing the environment which

offers the opportunity for intellectual activity and criticism; yet to develop in students an honor and respect for the enduring values of the culture. It is at the higher educational level that students come to view the dichotomies and contradictions which generate feelings of ambivalence. Nevertheless, within this environment it is mandatory that young people and citizens move to a dimension of confidence and proficiency in order that they may make their contribution to the culture and earn a living.

For the institution of higher education which has historical functions and has been forced to adapt to contemporary needs of its constituency and its nation as black colleges are mandated, it is imperative that insight, energies and dedication be poured into the Long-Range Academic Planning phases. We can no longer concern ourselves with the "short-term, survival" kinds of planning. Current conditions demand that we forge ahead to a level of strength, stability, competency, and endurance for accomplishing the broad tasks inherent within the scope of our institutional mission.

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From Institutional Goals Inventory, (Princeton, Educational Testing Service, 1972

## Output Goals

- Academic Development (acquisition of knowledge, academic mastery, etc.)
- Intellectual Orientation (as an attitude, style, commitment to learning, etc.)
- Individual Personal Development (of one's unique human potential, etc.)
- Humanism/Altruism (idealism, social concern, etc.)
- Cultural/Aesthetic Awareness (appreciation, sensitivity to the arts, etc.)
- Traditional Religiousness

- Vocational Preparation
- Advanced Training (graduate, professional)
- Research
- Meeting Local Needs (community public service, etc.)
- Public Service (to regional, state, national, international agencies)
- Social Egalitarianism (meeting educational needs of people throughout the social system)
- Social Criticism/Activism (toward change in American life)

### Process Goals

- Freedom (academic, personal)
- Democratic Governance (emphasizing structural factors)
- Community (emphasizing attitudinal factors – morale, spirit, ethos)
- Intellectual/Aesthetic Environment (intellectual stimulation, excitement, etc.)
- Innovation
- Off-Campus Learning
- Accountability/Efficiency

# PART III

# ESTABLISHING INSTITUTIONAL GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

## ESTABLISHING INSTITUTIONAL GOALS AND OBJECTIVES – (A SIMULATION SESSION)

During this session on, "Establishing Institutional Goals and Objectives", two methods were demonstrated by actual participation of the participants in attendance. The methods were, "Educational Goals and Objectives – A Model Program for Community and Professional Involvement", distributed by the Commission on Educational Planning – Phi Delta Kappa, Incorporated, and the Delphi Technique, "A New Tool For Administrators: "Delphi and Decision Making", by Alfred Rasp, Jr.

As a means of providing colleges with a tool which could be used to establish institutional goals and objectives, the CAP interns, who are presently doctoral candidates at Kansas State University, presented at the Atlanta Conference on "Long-Range Academic Planning", the Phi Delta Kappa Model.

This model for establishing educational goals and performance objectives was developed by the staff of the Northern California program Development Center of Chico, through a grant from the U. S. Office of Education and is being distributed by the Commission on Educational Planning of Phi Delta Kappa. This program has been thoroughly field tested in many educational settings.

The model consists of a series of strategies whereby an institution may develop community-ranked educational goals and teacher-developed objectives. Provision is made for the involvement of members of the community, the professional staff and students in:

1. ranking educational goals in order of their priority;

2. assessing how well current educational programs are meeting these goals; and

3. developing program level performance objectives by the professional staff that are designed to meet the priority ranked goals.

The interns presented this technique in two simulation sessions with twenty-four to twenty-eight members from various colleges in each group. Emphasis in both groups was placed on the process by which goals and objectives are established rather than the goals themselves. It was felt that colleges could establish their own goals and objectives if the processes by which they are established were available to them.

The participants actually played the role of faculty, administrators, members of the community and students in ranking institutional goals individually and in group rankings. The session was lively and interesting as displayed by the actions of the participants and statements made by them following the session.

A discussion was generated following the role playing. A majority of those in attendance agreed that, with modifications, this technique could be readily used in their colleges. The main curtailment was choosing the community. It was pointed out that the college community as generally defined was broader than the immediate community surrounding each particular institution. The consensus reached concerning this question was that the community should be broad based and should include the alumni.

The Delphi Technique affords an opportunity for decisions to be made based upon the input of all concerned. Thus, the Cooperative Academic Planning program felt that colleges and universities could utilize this technique in the development of long-range planning of goals and objectives.

The major purpose of the simulation with the college and university participants was to develop an agenda for the Friday afternoon cluster sessions. The technique was explained to the participants – what it is, why developed, and how it can be used at their institution. In addition, a handout containing this information was given to each college representative for future reference.

The Delphi process was modified because of the time constraints. However, the following steps were completed:

1. Each participant listed concerns and problems he felt should be addressed.

2. These suggestions were compiled into a list of eighteen.

3. Each participant was asked to rank the eighteen suggestions from a high of (1) to a low of (5).

4. Averages were obtained for each of the items and then the items were ranked in light of the responses of the participants.

5. These rankings were then used as the agenda for the cluster meetings.

The eighteen concerns and problems listed by the participants are shown in the appendix. Listed below are the six concerns receiving top priority:

1. Finding adequate funding.

2. In-service training of faculty for implementation of new programs – competency-based instruction, individualized instruction, working with lower-level division students, etc.

3. Development of a systematic instrument for follow-up studies of graduates.

4. Development of curricular content workshops in specialized areas such as the sciences, business, mathematics, etc.

5. Improving communicative skills of students.

6. Recruitment and retention of students.

The four doctoral interns from Kansas State University who conducted the session on establishing goals and objectives along with the subsequent follow-up activities are: Birdex Copeland, Emmitt E. Follins, Rosa A. Harris and McClean Tobin. Additional technical assistance was provided by Willie J. Epps and Roosevelt Calbert.

## APPENDIX

NAME

DELPHI QUESTIONNAIRE II

The following items below represent the collated responses to the first Delphi questionnaire. Please circle your priority for each item.

HIGH LOW

1 2 3 4 5 1) The specific procedures used to convert verbal objectives to measurable objectives.

HIGH LOW

1 2 3 4 5 2) The extent and kinds of services that CAP can provide to implement new programs whose needs have been established by an assessment instrument.

HIGH LOW

1 2 3 4 5 3) Ways to maximize the participation of faculty and students in needs assessment.

HIGH LOW

1 2 3 4 5 4) Creating concern in the community.

HIGH LOW

1 2 3 4 5 5) Means of encouraging faculty and administrators to participate in CAP activities to overcome professional complacency.

HIGH LOW

1 2 3 4 5 6) Finding adequate funding.

HIGH LOW

1 2 3 4 5 7) Recruitment and retention of students.

HIGH LOW

1 2 3 4 5 8) Development of a systematic instrument for following studies of graduates.

HIGH LOW

1 2 3 4 5 9) Development of institutional research.

HIGH LOW

1 2 3 4 5 10) In-service training of faculty for implementation of new programs – competency-based instruction, individualized instruction, working with lower-level division students, etc.

HIGH LOW

1 2 3 4 5 11) Improving communicative skills of students.

HIGH LOW

1 2 3 4 5 12) Development of long-range plans to serve future clientele in light of recent court actions toward desegregation.

HIGH LOW
1 2 3 4 5 13) Ways of setting up a communication network among schools involved in this conference.

HIGH LOW

1 2 3 4 5 14) Development of curricular content workshops in specialized areas such as science, business, mathematics, etc.

HIGH LOW

1 2 3 4 5 15) Means of assessing future labor market needs prior to program development.

HIGH LOW

1 2 3 4 5 16) Ways and means of acquiring consultants for specific tasks to support the regular faculty.

HIGH LOW

1 2 3 4 5 17) Means by which historically black colleges can speak to the inequities of society without creating a backlash.

HIGH LOW

1 2 3 4 5 18) Should the development of a competitive work ethic be a goal of historically black colleges?

# PART IV

# DEVELOPING INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

## ESTABLISHING COLLEGIATE INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

**James Boyer**

College teaching, in many ways, has always been somewhat unsystematic and has been unaccountable to either the chief academic officers of the university or to the students who come to share our services in institutions of higher education across the country. This is not simply another in a series of public criticisms of higher education because I am a member of that group of professionals who offer their services as college teachers (sometimes known as professors). It is, however, a declaration that in this age of accountability and sensitivity to student's rights, we must now begin to ask a new set of questions about instructional objectives and their place in improved college curriculum and instruction. It is a pleasure to have an opportunity to discuss this crucial area of our work in higher education with instructional officers responsible for thousands of students and their achievement. You have a difficult task facing you and you demonstrate a tower of strength to assume leadership roles in these troubled times – when content, process and evaluation are all being questioned by students, presidents, governing boards and by parents and other supporters. You have a major challenge and I applaud your commitment.

But let us return to our notions about college teaching for a few minutes. Not only must we be concerned about college teaching in this decade of accountability, but we must continually improve college teaching at every level. The status quo is no longer acceptable and the very survival of our classes will depend on the quality of systematic instruction which characterize these classes. Historically, it was assumed that college teachers were professionally capable, bound to instructional integrity, and committed to the delivery of high quality instruction. I am happy to report that the majority of college teachers do deliver such instruction, they do demonstrate professional capability, and they are generally bound to instructional integrity. Today, however, it is not good enough to just be good. We must be outstanding. We must go beyond the call of duty in instructional

proficiency and we must re-dedicate our talents to the diversity of college-teaching responsibility. Professors are well aware of the implications of academic freedom and they are particularly possessive of their credentials which supposedly purport that they possess a body of knowledge related to their disciplines, and that they are proven scholars. The terminal degree is worn with pride and the temptation to defind it is extremely strong.

College teaching, then, is the umbrella under which this presentation is built. Specifically, we want to discuss the role, scope, sequence and possibilities of collegiate instructional objectives. We want to make a case for instructional objectives but we also want to give attention to your particular responsibilities – that of encouraging college teachers to establish objectives, to make them public, and to use them in assessing their progress and the progress of their students. We agree that that is a tall order, but we have no choice except to accept the challenge and attempt to move our college-teaching colleagues toward that kind of systematic instruction. It will not be easy – but the new demands of our profession will not permit us to reject the task.

The creation of instructional objectives is not really new to those of us who have been committed to teaching and learning for some time. Particularly those of us who taught below the college level at some point in our lives – will remember that the major requirement of much of our teaching was comprised of the establishment of objectives. There were times when I wish someone had been more concerned about how well those objectives were reached, other than white-oriented standardized tests, but at least they were established.

But what are objectives? Why must they be established? Of what real significance is the instructional objective to the developing institution of higher learning? Why must we be concerned about instructional excellence more today then ever before? It is no secret that the developing institution which served a predominantly non-white population has struggled from the very beginning to exist and to deliver quality instructional service. It is no secret that these institutions have been ridiculed and called by some uncomplimentary names at various points, but it is also no secret that these colleges were responsible for the undergraduate training of 75% of all outstanding

non-white Americans at every level of government, education, industry, and business today. Someone has been doing some excellent teaching under adverse circumstances for a long time. But what we did twenty-five years ago is somewhat inadequate for today's demands. Let us define it.

*Objectives Defined*

According to John Hough and James K. Duncan in their book, Teaching: Description and Analysis, instructional objectives are operational statements that describe the student behavior which will be accepted as evidence that the student has learned. When objectives are stated as description of the behaviors that students should be able to display following instruction, the teacher knows what it is that he wants his students to accomplish as a result of his instruction, and his students know what is expected of them. When a teacher (professor) establishes objectives in this way, a form of contract is established. An offer is made by the professor to instruct in such a way as to facilitate student learning, and the student accepts the offer and thus implies that he will expend reasonable effort to hold up his end of the contract: to achieve.

In reality, teaching and learning represent a basic contractual arrangement. Basic to all contracts is the assumption that both parties involved understand what it is that they are agreeing to. This notion has now reached the college classroom. Professors are making offers and students are agreeing to them — in the form of enrollments. But the contractual notion is violated, according to Duncan and Hough when either party has little understanding of what it is they are agreeing to. Professors who fail to establish instructional objectives are — in effect, not fulfilling their obligations to students in this decade. Many, however, do not know that they should establish them and this involves your work to encourage them to that end.

Glen Eye and Lanore a Netzer in their book, (Supervision of Instruction, p. 46) define an objective as the "identity or definition of a goal refined and accepted as the object of achievement." (p. 46). The objective constitutes the specific direction for action. The number of

objectives that a particular professor may want to establish will depend on a number of factors such as the nature of the content being treated, the number of college students being taught at any given time, and the extent to which he is able to perceive his instructional responsibility at a systematic level. An extremely important aspect of objectives in teaching is their usefulness in determining when achievement has been reached. It is my firm belief that achievement is the real purpose for which we hold college classes and its assessment is always a difficult process. The absence of objectives by any professor places all his appraisals and assessments on the basis of judgment and a decision by simple intuition rather than academic sophistication.

Chief academic officers of colleges and universities often respond to this kind of presentation by saying that the establishment of objectives are fine for skill courses but they do not necessary lend themselves to philosophy, literature and some other areas. Our position is that every college teacher who accepts pay for his/her instructional services should be responsible for the establishment of collegiate instructional objectives. Further, I now take the position that they should be made public – that is, shared with the learners.

An objective should state what a student is expected to learn – at one level. At another level it should state what the professor expects to accomplish as a result of his instructional behavior in a given period. Objectives which state what a student is to achieve through instruction are of most value. These should be stated in identifiable, observable, or measurable products that are aspects of growth and development. In educational literature, these have been frequently categorized as follows:

(1) Knowledge of something – a thing, event, etc.

(2) Concepts, generalizations, and understandings that constitute an individual's analysis and synthesis of knowledge learned.

(3) Attitude, feeling, or an emotional set about something.

(4) Ways of responding and behaving in a particular environment.

(5) Skills and abilities to do particular behavioral acts.

(6) Feelings and concepts about one's self as a person.

(7) Enjoyments, satisfactions, or disappoints; sense of well-being.

(8) Application of knowledge to new situations and conditions.

Much of the work related to instructional objectives grew out of Bloom's work on the Cognitive Domain. Later, Norris Sanders condensed this work into a booklet called Classroom Questions: What Kind? Both are classic references for college teachers today.

Instructional objectives help to designate the nature of the learning activities that are appropriate for attaining the desired outcomes of college teaching. They also identify the nature of the content that could be used in developing such learning experience.

Roger F. Mager, in his classic little booklet called Preparing Instructional Objectives, lists the following guidelines:

| Words Open to Many Interpretations | Words Open to Fewer Interpretations |
|---|---|
| to know | to write |
| to understand | to recite |
| to really understand | to identify |
| to appreciate | to differentiate |
| to fully appreciate | to solve |
| to grasp the significance of | to construct |
| to enjoy | to list |
| to believe | to compare |
| to have faith in | to contrast |

Obviously the fewest interpretations make the objectives more meaningful to the learners.

Words open to fewer interpretations permit the indication of the kinds of measurements and other evaluations that should be made to

determine the effectiveness of college teaching. Objectives fill three basic functions:

(1) They state the kind of learnings that college students are to achieve.

(2) They enable the professor to plan and develop systematic learning experiences for students.

(3) They provide a basis for evaluating the effectiveness of those learnings.

Further, objectives may be behavioral or otherwise. We will not take the time here to build a stronger case for behavioral objectives as defined by proponents of competency-based instruction. While we are personally committed to that level of specificity, we recognize that many college teachers across the country are in violent opposition to the philosophical base of behavioral objectives. Our present proposal is that professors should:

(A) Write objectives which indicate a broad learning outcome; and

(B) Write objectives which communicate to learners what they must demonstrate as successful behavioral change.

The Instructional Program at the collegiate level must include cognitive learnings, affective learnings, and psychomotor learnings. Most of those which are cognitively identifiable are those which are most easily measured.

Another way of thinking of collegiate instructional objectives involves thinking of them in three levels:

(A) What is the course designed to achieve in a given semester or year?

(B) What is it designed to achieve in the first half? or quarter?

(C) What is today's lesson designed to achieve?

*Objectives (Another View)*:

J. Galen Sayler and William M. Alexander (Curriculum Planning for Schools, p. 148) define objectives as follows: Objectives state the specific, overt changes in student behavior that are expected to result from participation in a unit of learning activities. Obviously, they develop more explicitly the general goals and their respective subgoals for the purpose of planning instruction.

We are among those who purport that college instruction should be designed toward behavior change for students. Objectives, then, should help the professor define the direction of that change and the pattern of behavior or performance which the learner is to demonstrate. Even if a goal is broad or long-term, the specification of a particular set of instructional objectives will represent a high level of complex mental activity. The component parts make up the complex behavior.

Robert Gagne' (Educational Leadership, February, 1972) points out that:

> "... instructional objectives have the primary purpose of communicating. Assuming that education has the form of an organized system, communication of its intended and actual outcomes is necessary, among and between the designers of instructional materials, the planners of courses and programs, the teachers, the students, and the parents." (p. 395).

In the early part of this century, the Harvard Report indicated that the college curriculum should include (a) general education, (b) specific education, and (c) vocational education. Since that time, we have refined the basic components of the college curriculum several times. Today, we have a new set of realizations. Knowledge doubled between 1900 and 1950; it doubled again between 1950 and 1970; it is expected to double again between 1970 and 1980. With the rapid increase in knowledge productivity, colleges must become highly selective about the content which it uses to reach the objectives of instruction. The establishment of objectives helps the college curriculum implementer (the professor) to make the most appropriate selections for his goals.

Behavioral objectives, however, provide direct, useful guidance in content selection. What shall we teach? Objectives also provide guidance to the professor in choosing instructional materials and methods (techniques) and in directing classroom (learning) activities.

Robert Mager further implies that "An instructor will function in a fog of his own making until he knows just what he wants his students to be able to do at the end of instruction. (Preparing Instructional Objectives, p. 3).

Popham (Establishing Instructional Goals, p. 42) indicates that the clarity of precisely stated goals permits the teacher to make far more judicious choices regarding what ought to be included in the curriculum.

*Efficiency and College Teaching Objectives*

For years, I have lived under the assumption that a person or an organization had either money or time – rarely did one have both. The lack of money, however, now demands that we become more proficient and efficient in our endeavors. Black colleges have a history of low finances due to the economic, political and social system of the country in which we live, and our very heritage now demands that we become leaders (not just followers) in instructional efficiency. When we become serious about instructional efficiency, we recognize that the establishment of objectives leads the way to learning experiences which achieve measurable outcomes. A college student can readily note progress if goal attainment and purposeful behavior are reinforced. Wasted motion must be reduced and strong rationales must be given college students for having them engage in certain learning experiences. Objectives like "To develop an appreciation of modern art" are acceptable only at the broad, first-based level. Assessment is limited and the communication of that assessment process is practically impossible.

In one major university in this country, the faculty was decreased by 12% in each department this academic year. One of the bases for retaining faculty members rested on their demonstrated ability to produce high quality teaching – particularly those whose demonstration included systematic approaches leading from specified objectives.

When one considers the full range of college curriculum, however, it must be remembered that not all objectives lend themselves to the quantitative kind of measurement of which we speak. Even James Popham (Education Leadership, April, 1972, p. 608) agrees that "... there are some important goals which we have for our children which are currently unassessable. To the extent that such goals are extremely meritorious, they are worth the risk of our pursuing them even if we cannot reliably discern whether they have been accomplished."

*Behavioral Objectives and Expressive Objectives*

Much of our discussion has centered on behavioral objectives for college teaching but we must recognize that there are some experiences which are not designed to be measured. We call these expressive objectives. An example is the exposure to a musical or artistic presentation over which the learner will not be tested. The sharing, in some cases, of a lecture which will not necessarily be included on the next test. Each professor has a series of expressive objectives which he hopes learners will reach through exposure. These we respect as much. The problem is that we have had about 90% of collegiate objectives encapsuled in this kind of objective at one time. We must now reconsider.

It should be mentioned that the art and science of college teaching can follow a systematic approach. Objectives make up just one dimension of that process. The others are:

I. Objectives

II. Content Usage

III. Assessment of Process/Interaction/Achievement

The teaching Act involves three phases:

I. Pre-Active Phase (preparation for meeting learners)

II. Interactive Phase (physical proximity with learners during interaction)

III. Post-Active Phase (Review, Assessment, Re-Ordering).

*Other Classifications*:

Duncan and Hough offer still other classifications for objectives:

(A) *Course or Program Objectives*

These goals/statements which indicate that the leaner will experience a wide range of problems, distinguishing facts from conjectures and inferences, and identifying procedures required to obtain verification of hypotheses and suggested solutions. (Also AAAS Science). They specify and delimit educational goals.

(B) *Intermediate Objectives*

Statements which are designed to refine course or program objectives, to make them more operational. In traditional terms, they were associated with curriculum units or modules. (A unit or module involves a set of related instructional activities with a central organizing theme).

(C) *Instructional Objectives*

Statements which are designed to further refine intermediate objectives. Statements of intent that focus the teacher's attention on what he and his students will be doing in the classroom.

It stands then that intermediate objectives should grow out of course objectives and that instructional objectives should grow out of intermediate objectives. The instructional objectives should be consistent with the developmental characteristics of students and, therefore,

achievable by those students. (Freshman level objectives -vs- Senior level objectives). One does not establish intermediate objectives that he cannot implement through instructional objectives. Such an interlocking relationship forms an interplay between larger ends and the specific means necessary for their accomplishment.

*Relationship of Objectives to Evaluation*

We do not feel it necessary to spend much time with this sophisticated group on the powerful marriage between instructional objectives and student evaluation. Further, there is a direct relationship between the stated objectives and evaluation, specifically, the instrument (test). Grading is another matter – it was originally designed to communicate student progress to others. While it is convenient, it is certainly a reflection of professorial philosophy and nothing more. The only consistent item of student grades is the way the professor feels at the time grades are assigned. Expanding the concentration on meaningful objectives would help to reduce that impact.

*Management by Objectives*

Real instructional management is now turning to some concern with systematic checkpoints based on objectives. Instructional objectives permit the professor to assess progress frequently – while intermediate objectives provide a framework for looking at achievement and progress at other, longer points in the instructional sequence. We recognize that much of college learning becomes meaningful at some later point in the life of the individual, but we must be concerned now with quality instruction (including establishing objectives) which answer the cries of our students and our supporters NOW. Many of our colleagues will imply that such interim checkpoints are not necessary for the real scholar – that college professors have demonstrated their scholarship and have lectured successfully for more than 700 years. This position is the very reason that we are devoting some time to the concept of scholarly management of teaching and learning by objectives.

But let me assume that those of us in this room are already convinced of the great need for clear objectives for instruction at the college level. Let me assume also that your own successful terms as college teachers were and are still characterized by the establishment and utilization of strong instructional objectives. Our real task today is to influence our professorial colleagues back at our home stations.

*The Need for Publishing Instructional Objectives*

Because we assumed the instructional sophistication of our colleagues for so many years, the ranks of the professorship were infiltrated by some who are not quite so talented in modern skills of teaching and learning. For this reason, chief academic officers and others responsible primarily for instruction must now tactfully seek to institute a team approach to teaching and learning. Please understand that we are not suggesting that we tell any professor "how to teach." We would only meet fire with fire if we chose that tactic. Let us begin to ask sharing questions about professorial instruction. First, we must somehow convince others that the sharing of their objectives will not, in any way, reduce the significance of their instruction. Secondly, we must convince our colleagues that it will not result in academic abortion of any discipline if we publicly declare what it is that we want students to achieve as a result of our work. Thirdly, we must be willing to share our own objectives with the faculty so that they are free to emulate our behavior rather than just "take orders" as some professors see the roles of chief academic officers.

What is meant by publishing objectives? First, it means that they should be written. It is no longer adequate for the professor to say: "I know what my objectives are." His students and his academic officers must also know what they are. Techniques of reaching those objectives are often private professorial domains, but the objectives to be achieved by students should be made clear to those students, and should be on file in some place immediately accessible to the chief academic officer of the college or university.

No course outline should ever be shared with students unless it is accompanied by objectives. For those moving in the direction of

competency-based education, it is a foregone conclusion that no modules, learning packets, units, or mediated learning device is of any value unless the learner is apprised of the objectives to be reached. The old fashioned lesson plans are not what we are talking about but we do seek some organized record of proposed teaching at the college level. Publishing does not mean getting a copyright and making them available for sale. We have already had one term paper scandal in this country. Publishing means informing the students and the chief academic officers of what it is that the professor's course or teaching experience is designed to accomplish. Make them known to all concerned.

We must convince our colleagues that when instructional objectives are sharply focused, they will provide the professor with a sense of purpose and direction and with a structure for more valid decision-making. They provide a framework for answering the question: How will I know when I have taught it? and How will I know when a student has achieved? Also, the declaration of objectives (in written form) will provide that record of the collegiate course or segment which will increasingly be called on to justify its existence when programs of study must be reduced and cut for fiscal or other reasons. The professor who has not done an excellent job in the instructional arena will not survive much longer. Teaching is not the "easy hustle" it was once conceived of – and the students who populate our classes will begin to take us to court for misuse of their tuition funds if we do not delivery high quality instruction which emanates from well-conceived objectives. All of us are more open to academic liability today than ever before. Our past negligence and our past behaviors which (consciously or unconsciously) mitigated against students must now be examined and evaluated. Faculty evaluation, tenure, promotion, merit rewards, ceremonial awards, and all the professorial factors which we once took for granted will become more and more diffucult to ascertain unless we begin to improve all college teaching, and that improvement begins with well established objectives.

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# PART V

# DEVELOPMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION OF PROGRAMS

## STRATEGIES FOR IMPLEMENTING CHANGES IN EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

**Jack Gant**

### *INTRODUCTION*

This presentation does not include any planning for statewide educational systems but is designed primarily for the institutional level. This does not rule out the fact that the same plans could be used in a statewide university system, but the particular institutions at this conference are not members of such a system.

You have already been made aware of the importance of a need assessment, and, therefore, need assessment techniques will not be included in this presentation, but it is the first step in any program development or strategy for implementing change in educational programs. In this presentation we will discuss briefly some basic assumptions about any change effort, assessment of the environment for the change, some change strategies which may be employed, and an examination of competition versus collaboration methodology for implementing change.

*Assumptions About Change.*

In the development of any institutional program, we must keep in mind that a program change is in essence a change in the way that the institution or organization carries out its mission or objectives. While the objectives are reflected in the program, these objectives are specific milestones supportive of the mission of the institution or organization. Program development is therefore organizational change, and as changes in organizations take place, there are certain principles or assumptions about change which characterize that particular change process. Some of these assumptions are:

1. To change a support system of any organization, relevant aspects of the environment must also be changed. However, the basic unit of change in any organization is usually a

face-to-face group. Most organizations have norms of relatively low openness due to a low level of trust. These organizations tend to suppress, avoid, or compromise conflict within work groups and between groups.

2. To change behavior in any one level of a hierarchical organization, it is necessary to achieve complimentary and reinforcing changes in organization levels above and below that level. Therefore, the place to begin change is at those points in the system where stress and strain exist. Stress may give rise to dissatisfaction with the status quo and thus become a motivating factor for change in the system.

*Three Ways of Intervening in a System*

There are three ways in which we usually intervene in an organization or a system:

1. *Through crisis.*

   To create a program or develop a change, a crisis situation may exist or be engineered. For example, Sputnik and the resulting curriculum reforms of the late '50's and early '60's. Change as a result of crisis, however, is generally short-lived unless there is some way to maintain the change once implemented.

2. *Painpoint*

   When we intervene in a system at the place where there is natural pain or stress, we are entering at a point where the members of the organization feel a need for change and, therefore, there is no need to generate motivation or question whether or not something needs to be done.

3. *Intervention in a system as a developmental process*

When one intervenes into a system through a developmental process, one continues the ongoing operations and improves on those operations. This type of intervention is usually the most lasting, creates the least amount of unrest, and takes the longest to get implemented. It is usually a response to the day-to-day environment.

In a hierarchical structure, change should ordinarily start with the policy-making body, especially if structural changes are contemplated. The effectiveness of a change strategy is often directly related to the degree to which the members at all levels of an institution take part in fact finding, diagnosing the need for change, and then formulating and in reality testing of the goals.

*Assumptions About Individuals*

Most individuals want their organizations to succeed yet they tend to be resistant to change, particularly if they are not involved or are not clear on the goals of the change. Most individuals tend to resist, avoid, and suppress confrontation and management of conflict. The attitudes of individuals, therefore, must be unfrozen, new ones learned and stabilized.

*Assessing the Environment for Program Change*

In assessing the environment for a program change, the program developers should consider the formal and informal organization, the assumptions which have been outlined previously about change in organizations and determine what the stresses in the environment are. In looking at this environment, one should look both at the influences of the internal environment such as existing programs, administration, views of the faculty, extent to which previous change efforts have succeeded or failed, the amount of motivation that has already been attempted and its success or failure, etc. One should also look at the external environment in terms of the economic conditions, the

projections for growth in enrollments, public attitude toward education or that particular educational program, etc.

In making this assessment of the program, we need to consider that program in terms of the demand and one's capability to meet that demand.

*Need*

1. Demand for the Program

   A. Manpower needs – present and future

   B. Student demands – critical mass

   C. Competent personnel to initiate the program

   D. Resources to develop, implement, and maintain

2. Is there presently a market for students who will be trained?

   - Will that market remain long enough to justify initiating a program?

   - Are there other institutions nearby or within the market area which serve that market?

   - Is the program within the main mission of the college?

3. Is there a critical mass of capable students available and interested in the program?

   - Will the critical mass be maintained long enough to justify initiation of the program?

4. Are competent personnel available or can they be found?

   - Is there administrative support for the program?
   - Are personnel enthusiastic about the program?
   - Do personnel see the program as being complimentary or competitive with existing programs?

5. Are enough resources available or easily accessible to initiate the program?

   - Can the program be maintained without draining resources from other programs?
   - Are resources in time and personnel available to give adequate attention to planning and development of the program?
   - Are there resources available to gear down as well as gear up?

Some techniques which may be employed in assessing the human environment, the constraints within the system, are force field analysis and action planning techniques.

*Change Strategies*

To develop a program which is to create change, the strategies employed should be selected with care. Olmosk[1] has developed several pure strategies for change. I would like to examine five of those because I think they have significance for what you should consider in selecting

[1]Olmosk, Kurt E. Seven Pure Strategies of Change. The 1972 Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators. University Associates. Washington, D.C.

an appropriate strategy for implementing any educational program which you may design. The five strategies are:

FELLOWSHIP

POLITICAL

ACADEMIC

CONFRONTATION

APPLIED BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE

## FELLOWSHIP

| | |
|---|---|
| Basic Assumption: | If we have good warm interpersonal relations, all other problems will be minor |
| Inclusion: | Get everybody in |
| Influence: | Everybody equal |

| | |
|---|---|
| Perceptual Approach: | Accepts all. Shuts out none |
| Emotional Needs: | Warmth, love and trust |
| Good at: | Mobilizing initial energy |
| Chronic Problems: | Financial support. Actual implementation of decisions. Maintaining long run commitment |
| Questions Suppressed: | Individual differences |
| Most Often Used By: | Churches, Volunteer organizations. Groups with limited power |

**POLITICAL**

| | |
|---|---|
| Assumption: | If all the really influential people agree to do something, it will be done |
| Inclusion: | Get everyone in who possesses power |
| Influence: | Based on level and breadth of perceived power |
| Perceptual Approach: | Stereotype. Ignore individual differences unless they relate to power |
| Emotional Needs: | Control and attention |
| Good at: | Mobilizing power. Implementing decisions once made |

| | |
|---|---|
| Chronic Problems: | Maintaining credibility. Fighting backlash |
| Questions Suppressed: | Is my action consistent with my value system? |
| Most Often Used By: | Those already in power |

**ACADEMiC**

| | |
|---|---|
| Assumption: | People are rational. If you present enough facts to people, they will change |
| Inclusion: | Based on possession of knowledge and facts |
| Influence: | Based on specialized knowledge and expertise |
| Perceptual Approach: | Analytical and detached |
| Emotional Needs: | Autonomy and rationality |
| Good at: | Finding causes. Presenting relevant information |
| Chronic Problems: | Implementing findings. Mobilizing energy. Getting people to pay attention or read reports. Time consuming |
| Questions Suppressed: | How do I feel about results? How should results be used? |
| Most Often Used By: | Outsiders. People in staff positions. |

## CONFRONTATION

| | |
|---|---|
| Assumption: | If we can mobilize enough anger and force people to look at problems around us, the required changes will be made |
| Inclusion: | Based on ability to deal with and use conflict |
| Influence: | By non-violent argument |
| Perceptual Approach: | Narrow belief in "Truth" |
| Emotional Needs: | Expression of anger. Expression of self |
| Good at: | Forcing people to look at issues they may not want to acknowledge. Gaining attention and publicity |
| Chronic Problems: | Finding alternatives. Dealing with backlash |
| Questions Suppressed: | Is anything in opponents' argument worthwhile? |
| Most Often Used By: | Revolutionary students. The poor Unions. |

## APPLIED BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE

| | |
|---|---|
| Assumption: | Most problems are complex and overdetermined. A combination of approaches is usually required. |
| Inclusion: | Based on including as many of those effected as possible |

| | |
|---|---|
| Influence: | Based on knowledge and the degree to which the decisions will effect them |
| Perceptual Approach: | Eclectic but situation-centered |
| Emotional Needs: | Emotional and intellectual integration |
| Good at: | Using as much information as possible |
| Problems: | Making itself understood. Not appearing "wishy-washy". |
| Questions Suppressed: | How should I "really" do it? Do you really know what you are doing? |
| Most Often Used By: | Human relations consultants, organization development consultants |

**COLLABORATION VERSUS COMPETITION METHODOLOGY**

| COMPETITION | vs | COLLABORATION |
|---|---|---|
| Pursue Own Goals | | Pursue Common Goals |
| Secrecy | | Openness |
| Disguise Own Needs | | Share Own Needs |
| Surprise Strategy | | Predictable Strategy |
| Threats and Bluffs | | Honest and Direct |
| Ignore Logic of Others | | Recognize Merit in Ideas of Others |

I do not have ample time to adequately address the issue of conflict. If you are a part of a long-range academic planning team, you really need to facilitate a good session on conflict management because you must deal with conflict if you are planning to implement new academic programs on your campuses. There is perhaps some conflict already there and any change strategy is going to have some conflict built in it because you will have to unfreeze people from their present positions. When you begin to unfreeze people, conflict will be generated and you must consequently learn how to manage this conflict. Conflict is not really something that is dirty. On the contrary, conflict is something that can be healthy. It can be healthy for an organization. Conflict in some form is always present. If you properly manage that conflict, people will function at a higher level once the interactive process has been completed.

If you do not openly examine conflict and manage it, people will continue to go underground and as they go underground, you will get a competitive strategy. Although one may be successful in getting a program instituted at a college or university where people tend to function underground, the program will not really benefit the institution.

# PART VI

# PROGRAM EVALUATION

## PROGRAM EVALUATION: A CORNERSTONE TO LONG-RANGE PLANNING

Donald P. Hoyt

*Evaluation Purposes*

It seems prudent to begin a discussion of program evaluation with the question, "Why evaluate?" At least three major purposes can be suggested:

1. Evaluation may serve a political or public relations purpose. That is, its results may be used to persuade a sponsor of how effective, potent or worthy we are; or they may be used to convince potential clients of the value of our services. When done well, such evaluations are said to serve societal demands for "accountability" and "consumer information". Done poorly, they can serve as "slick con jobs" whose central purpose is not to inform but to deceive.

2. A second purpose of evaluation is to make administrative decisions more rational. Directly or indirectly, formally or informally, administrators make periodic decisions regarding every program within their jurisdiction. "Shall we retain or drop this program? Should a program be expanded or contracted? Should resources be committed or withdrawn?" If decisions of this type are based on objective evaluations of program effectiveness, they will be more rational than if criteria such as "personality of the director", "tradition", or "programs competing institutions offer" are used.

3. Finally, evaluation may be used to guide program development. Comprehensive evaluations will not only describe the degree to which program objectives were reached but will also identify major reasons why success or failure occurred.

In other words, a thorough evaluation procedure will include a diagnostic effort. What aspects of the program were particularly successful? What were the major weaknesses in the program?

When one is concerned with evaluation whose purpose is to guide and improve program development, those who like educational jargon use the term "formative evaluation". In contrast, "summative evaluation" refers to overall summaries of how successful objectives were reached. These two types of evaluation require a coherent "package of specifications":

a. What objectives do we wish to accomplish? (A question which normally pre-supposes that a "needs assessment" has been made.)

   (1) Who or what is expected to be affected?

   (2) How will they or it be different if the expected effects occur?

b. What means are proposed for accomplishing these desired ends?

   (1) What specific people are involved?

   (2) What specific processes are involved?

   (3) What particular types of non-personal support are involved (materials, equipment, facilities, etc.)?

c. How can "success" be inferred or measured?

   (1) What constitutes evidence of change in the desired direction?

(2) How can one be certain that the program was responsible for the change?

d. How can the impact of various program components (personnel, processes, materials) be judged?

The next section will examine these specifications in more detail.

*The Evaluation Process*

1. *Specification of objectives.* To the extent that educational programs have rational ties to educational theory and philosophy, it is essential that purposes be explicated. While it is important to recognize that unanticipated side-effects may occur and that these should be considered in overall evaluative judgments, most "value free" evaluations appear to be desperate attempts to justify ill-conceived programs. Evaluators need to be alert to side effects, but useful evaluations are most likely to occur when objectives have been carefully specified.

Meaningful objectives usually arise from a formal or informal "needs assessment" and a realistic appraisal of resources. Program failure can often be attributed to either an erroneous assessment of needs (the program cannot succeed because it addresses non-existent needs) or an unrealistic assessment of resources (the needs identified require resources well beyond those available to the institution).

Objectives become most meaningful when the people to be influenced are identified. Frequently, more than one group is involved. A particular curriculum innovation, for example, may be expected to have an impact on participating faculty members, a somewhat different impact on other faculty members, a different effect on participating students, and still another effect upon their ultimate employers.

In trying to specify these effects, it is helpful to apply the broad categories of change identified by the authors of the Taxonomies of Educational Objectives—cognitive changes (changes in knowledge or in intellectual functioning), affective change (changes in attitudes or feelings), and motor changes (changes in skills or other types of behavior).

Most educational programs will have objectives of all three types, but not for all clientele. Although participating students may be expected to gain knowledge or intellectual skill, improved attitudes, and some behavioral proficiency, we may anticipate that the chief impact on their employers would be in the affective domain (they feel positively toward the program and its graduates).

2. *Program specification.* Unless a program is designed to accomplish predetermined objectives or purposes, it is likely to fail. Sound program specification requires that each program component be related to program objectives in some way.

Most programs consist of people instituting processes with the assistance of materials or facilities. On the basis of theoretical notions or just plain common sense, a plan is devised for accomplishing specific objectives. Usually, a set of activities is proposed each of which presumably contributes directly or indirectly to the accomplishment of a given objective. The plan may call for individuals with particular characteristics to instigate or supervise these activities, and it may require special materials or facilities. A comprehensive evaluation scheme requires that the plan as implemented be compared with the plan as proposed. Did the activities actually occur? Did the implementors have the desired characteristics? Were the needed materials available in satisfactory supply?

In summary, the evaluation process requires that program components be related to objectives and that program realities be related to plans.

3. *Measuring success.* Although educational and psychological measurement is a very inexact science, it can usually be accomplished satisfactorily if objectives and the program(s) designed to achieve them have been clearly delineated.

In specifying objectives, it was previously suggested that both the target groups (students, alumni, faculty, employers, etc.) and types

of effects (cognitive, affective, motor) be identified. Then one needs to answer these questions:

a. Do we need measures both "before" and "after" the program or can change be inferred from post-assessment alone?

b. Who can provide relevant data (the individual participant, peers, employers, faculty members parents, etc.)?

c. How can relevant data be collected (standard tests, questionnaires, rating scales, interviews observational reports, etc.)?

Answers should reflect the purposes of the evaluation and common sense. Perhaps one of the most overlooked principles of measurement is "If you want to know something about someone, try asking them." Even if there is reason to question the validity of a given self-report, meaningful program evaluations can often be made on the basis of group averages (errors in individual judgments tend to cancel each other).

Clearly, an exception to this generalization occurs when the respondent has a personal stake—positively or negatively—in the results. Students will give less candid replies if they have to identify themselves and if the reply is sent to someone who could influence the student's future. Similarly, it is risky to depend on objective and accurate self-appraisals from faculty members under conditions where anonymity is not protected.

Standard references provide rules about constructing questionnaires and rating scales to maximize reliability and validity. In addition to following these rules, it is important to insure that the questions being asked are appropriate for the respondent. Do not ask students how their parents feel or faculty members how relevant their courses are to student needs.

In some cases, final outcomes constitute the major concern of the evaluation effort. How many students passed? What percent persisted for at least two years? What proportion obtained employment

related to their field of study? Such evaluations are worthwhile even though, in the scientific sense, they seldom prove anything.

If we really want to know whether a program was effective in accomplishing its objectives, we will usually need to compare pre- and post- status for those who participated in the program and a comparable group of non-participants. Arranging for such a "control" group is not always feasible outside the scientific laboratory. But approximations can often be found which permit improved estimates of a program's efficacy. For example, if the program is instituted for this year's freshmen, data from last year's freshmen may provide a useful comparison. A program designed for chemistry majors may be able to employ physics majors as a comparison group. A similar institution in a neighboring state may be willing to provide data which could be used to compare with data collected from participants in an experimental program. Occasionally, one may select participants from a larger pool of applicants (or eligible participants), in which case a control group may also be selected from this pool. (But both groups should be chosen by random methods in this case).

4. *Estimating program component effects.* While the effectiveness of a program requires an assessment of how well its objectives were met, such an appraisal provides little or no insight into why the program succeeded or failed. Conclusive evidence on this question requires a sophisticated experimental design, a generally unrealistic requirement for ongoing programs.

In the absence of scientific rigor, estimates of the impact of program components can still be made. Participants can provide useful observations about the value of various activities, individuals, and materials. It is frequently possible to inquire into these matters at the same time respondents describe their progress on cognitive, affective, or motor criteria. Thus, after rating an affective criterion like "Desire to take additional work in this area", respondents might be asked to indicate the degree to which their response reflected the out-of-class assignments, laboratory work with the special equipment, and their personal relationship with the instructor.

*Communication Responsibilities*

There are numerous reasons why evaluation efforts have had a disappointingly slight impact on educational planning. Perhaps the most serious of these is a failure in communication. Skilled evaluators are usually trained in the rigors of research. As a result, they tend to focus their communication efforts on an audience which shares their technical expertise. The result is usually a lengthy technical report replete with tables, footnotes, and appendencies. The administrator ignores the report since he does not have time to study it in detail. The practitioner ignores it because he can not understand it.

A technical report is necessary, both to provide a desirable degree of rigor and to increase credibility should criticism arise. But it is seldom sufficient. In addition, two other types of reports should be considered – a highlight report and an action report.

The highlight report is similar to a newspaper or magazine account. It describes the effort and outcomes in terms which the layman can understand. Its chief use is with sponsors, the media, and those who are interested, but not directly involved, in the program. Content must be consistent with that of the technical report, but a highlight report omits the details which make a report technical.

The action report is intended for policy and planning groups including officials responsible for the program. Its main purpose is to present implications and recommendations stemming from each major conclusion. The focus is on the question, "What do the findings mean in terms of policy, planning, and programming?" It should not be a careless report, but neither should it be so carefully qualified that it inhibits action. The spirit should be, "Given our closest approximation to truth, what actions should now be taken?"

*Evaluation Strategy*

Whether or not an evaluation effort has any impact on long range planning or any other aspect of institutional functioning is essentially unrelated to the technical excellence of the effort. (Technical excellence is related to the soundness of conclusions, however). Evaluations

which make a difference are those which planners, policy makers, and program officials identify with personally. Put otherwise, if you want evaluation results to make a difference, the people who make decisions must be personally involved in the process.

In the case of major programs, chief administrators should be involved in identifying program objectives. They may also be involved in identifying related problems such as "Can these objectives be achieved more economically?" The evaluation specialist needs direction from these leaders at the outset and should ascertain at the outset that his interpretation of their purposes is satisfactory.

Program officials also need to be involved in the specification of program components and the determination of criterion measures. Disagreements about procedures or measures should be worked out in advance. Nothing undermines an evaluation effort more devastatingly than an ex post facto criticism that the criteria did not reflect program objectives.

Finally, both policy makers and program officials should be involved in developing implications and recommendations. It they help formulate this section of the report, the probability of favorable action is much greater than if the recommendations seem to be "imposed" from an independent source.

*Conclusion*

Is evaluation really a cornerstone to long-range planning? Successful long range planning means predicting outcomes accurately and acting accordingly. Good evaluation clearly enhances the first half of this formula.

But effective evaluation is simply another way of speaking of sound judgment. In many situations, day-to-day experience is an insufficient basis for making such a judgment. If these situations are important to long-range planning, then a formal evaluation process should be considered.

Formal evaluation is a relatively exacting, time-consuming, and expensive proposition. The successful planner will recognize when sound judgments require a formal inquiry and when his own experience and instincts can best serve the planning process.

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